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The Application of the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders Framework within the Fields of Agricultural, Science, Math, and English Education

David A. Little
University of Tennessee - Knoxville

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by David A. Little entitled "The Application of the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders Framework within the Fields of Agricultural, Science, Math, and English Education." I have examined the final electronic copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Agriculture and Extension Education.

Carrie Ann Stephens, Major Professor

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Randol G. Waters, Gary Ubben

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

To the Graduate Council:

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Carolyn R. Hodges
Vice Provost and Dean of the
Graduate School

**THE APPLICATION OF THE SUPERVISORY OPTIONS
FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS FRAMEWORK
WITHIN THE FIELDS OF AGRICULTURAL, SCIENCE,
MATH, AND ENGLISH EDUCATION**

**A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**David Alan Little
May 2008**

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Dr. Thomas and Lynn Little, for always believing in me, inspiring me, and teaching me the value of struggling. Their tremendous sacrifices have led me to where I am today.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Dr. Carrie Stephens, committee chair, for her encouragement and assistance during the writing of this study and throughout my educational program. Thank you for so many opportunities of a lifetime that you have made available for me to experience. Your guidance, encouragement, and time have made this possible. You are an amazing advisor, mentor and friend.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine specific types of supervisory methods used in diverse academic subjects to fulfill personal and professional growth in student teachers and interns. The study sought to compare agriculture, science, math and English teacher educator characteristics and the extent to which the three levels of the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework—structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured—were used. Surveys were collected from 196 student teacher and intern supervisors throughout the United States. The study revealed that demographic associations appeared to have no bearing on the type of supervisory methods used with the exception that rank of the supervisor had a low correlation with the SOIL Framework in supervisors of agricultural education student teachers and interns. Supervisors of student teachers and interns who taught English, science, and agricultural education were most likely to *always* use moderately structured levels of supervision. Supervisors of math instruction reported using moderately structured levels of supervision *often* as opposed to *always*. The relatively unstructured level of supervision was virtually *never* utilized by supervisors of any subject areas. Recommendations for further study were provided in this thesis.

The SPSS version 12.0 for Windows was used to analyze data. Descriptive statistics included frequencies, percentages, means, modes, standard deviations, range, percents and frequencies. Analysis of data utilized Chi Squares, T-Tests, correlation coefficients, analysis of variance, and coefficients of stability. Statistical significance of relationships was established by the *a priori* .05 probability level.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I.....	1
GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....	1
Purpose and Objectives.....	3
Thesis Organization	4
Chapter II	5
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	5
Introduction.....	5
History of Supervision	5
Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders	7
Supervisory Models	9
Clinical Supervision.....	9
Conceptual Supervision	11
Developmental Supervision	12
Contextual Supervision.....	14
Differentiated Supervision.....	16
Risk/Reward.....	19
Organizational Behavior and Leadership in Education	20
Bureaucratic Views.....	20
Human Resources Development Views.....	21
Chapter III.....	22
METHODS AND PROCEDURES	22
Supervision Survey	22
Chapter IV.....	26
FINDINGS.....	26
Introduction.....	26
Instrument Development.....	26
Characteristics.....	26
Use of Selected Models of Instructional Supervision.....	27
Chapter V	36
THE APPLICATION OF THE SUPERVISORY OPTIONS FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS FRAMEWORK WITHIN THE FIELDS OF AGRICULTURAL, SCIENCE, MATH, AND ENGLISH EDUCATION.....	36
Abstract.....	36
Introduction.....	36
Theoretical Framework	38
Structured Level.....	40
Moderately Structured Level	43
Relatively Unstructured Level	45

Purpose and Objectives.....	47
Methods.....	48
Findings.....	51
Conclusions.....	60
Implications and Discussion	62
Recommendations.....	64
REFERENCES	65
APPENDICES	70
APPENDIX A HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH APPROVAL FORM	71
APPENDIX B SAMPLE STUDY COVER LETTER.....	76
APPENDIX C SAMPLE STUDY NONRESPONSE COVER LETTER.....	78
APPENDIX D SUPERVISION SURVEY	80
VITA	95

LIST OF TABLES

Table

Table 1. Davis Convention for Describing the Magnitude of Correlations.....	25
Table 2. Characteristics of Teacher Educators who Supervised Student Teachers and Interns during the 2005-2006 School Year.....	28
Table 3. The Extent That Teacher Educators in Math, Science, English, Agricultural Education and Other Professionals Used Components of Different Supervisory Models.....	29
Table 4. Significance of the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Supervision Utilized by Math, Science, Agricultural Education, English and Other Teacher Educators	31
Table 5. Mean Scores of University Supervisors in Math, Science, English and Agricultural Education who Utilized the Moderately Structured Levels of Supervision	31
Table 6. Percentages of Teacher Educators who used the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Instructional Supervision.	33
Table 7. Relationships Between Level of the SOIL Framework and Supervisory Experience, Formal Training, Cooperating Teacher Experience, and Academic Rank in Agricultural, Science, Math, and English Education.....	34
Table 8. Comparison of Supervisory Styles of Teacher Educators in Agricultural Education from 2003 Study to Teacher Educators in Agricultural Education in 2008	35
Table 9. Characteristics of Teacher Educators who Supervised Student Teachers and Interns during the 2005-2006 School Year.....	52
Table 10. The Extent That Teacher Educators in Math, Science, English, Agricultural Education and Other Professionals Used Components of Different Supervisory Models.....	54
Table 11. Significance of the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Supervision Utilized by Math, Science, Agricultural Education, English and Other Teacher Educators	55

Table 12. Mean Scores of University Supervisors in Math, Science, English and Agricultural Education who Utilized Moderately Structured and Relatively Unstructured Models of Supervision	55
Table 13. Percentages of Teacher Educators who used the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Instructional Supervision.	57
Table 14. Relationships Between Level of the SOIL Framework and Supervisory Experience, Formal Training, Cooperating Teacher Experience, and Academic Rank in Agricultural, Science, Math, and English Education.....	58
Table 15. Comparison of Supervisory Styles of Teacher Educators in Agricultural Education from 2001 to 2006.	59

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework.....	8
Figure 2. Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework.....	40

Chapter I

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) defined instructional supervision as “the behavior officially designated by the organization that affects teacher behavior in such a way as to facilitate pupil learning and to achieve the goals of the organization” (p. 43). Beach and Reihartz (1989) regarded instructional supervision as “a multifaceted process that focuses on instruction and provides teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills for improved performance” (p. 2). Hoy and Forsyth (1986) described the purpose of supervision as “neither to make judgments about the competence of teachers nor to control them but rather to work cooperatively with them” (p. 3). While there are many opinions regarding supervision among teachers in the public school system, a basic definition can be formulated to make supervision applicable across all academic backgrounds. A general definition of supervision could encompass anything that stimulates a better understanding of pedagogy in a specific area of instruction.

Instructional supervision is unique because methods used can be tailored to diverse teacher populations. In addition, demographics regarding schools and school systems are unique, and no two programs are identical. Moreover, the *open system* approach to contingency theory in education addresses the assumption that school systems should represent the environment in which they are placed and interact with that environment (Owens & Valesky, 2007). In relationship to this concept of school systems and environments, should different programs of curriculum be supervised in different ways? What are common models of supervision being used by teacher educators, and are there similarities when compared to different content areas?

The process of supervision for the teacher educator has evolved tremendously over the course of time. Some educators feel the supervision of teachers in the school setting is unnecessary and could be an obstacle for effective teaching (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971). Supporters of this idea align their supervisory philosophy with primitive models of supervision which are grounded in industrial management principles (Wiles & Bondi, 1986). Some examples of industrial management principles are control, compliance and authority and each principle is embedded in the supervisory process (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971).

However, a paradigm shift towards a more collegial style of leadership from the teacher educator has occurred in recent years. The paradigm shift has provided for more participative decision-making and collaborative models of supervision for the teacher. With more teacher involvement and decision making responsibilities, the supervisory-teacher relationship could have a direct effect on satisfaction in teaching (Edmeirer & Nicholas, 1999). Fritz (2002) suggested “how a supervisor defines supervision and the process of conducting a supervisory visit may/may not affect the happiness of the teacher” (p. 1).

Teacher educators should be aware of different approaches of instructional supervision, determine which model best suits their academic area, and decide to what extent the model is appropriate for stakeholders involved. Fritz and Miller (2004) developed the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework to provide such information. In the SOIL Framework (Fritz and Miller, 2004) there are two features which directly apply to stakeholders: *risk* and *reward*. In addition, the SOIL Framework is divided into three levels: structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured models of supervision. The *line of best fit* increases as the level of

supervision becomes more humanistic in regard to feedback and abstract thinking. The *line of best fit* decreases as levels of supervision becomes more bureaucratic and structured. A question to be explored would be what types of supervisory methods do teacher educators, in diverse academic areas, use to fulfill personal growth in student teachers during their internships? This question, along with others outlined, should be answered to better understand the development of teacher supervision.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this thesis was to determine the status of student teacher supervision in math, science, and English compared to that found in agricultural education. Five objectives served to guide this thesis:

- 1 Describe and compare characteristics of teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education who supervised student teachers from September 1, 2005 – May 31, 2006;
- 2 Determine and compare the extent to which teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education used select models of instructional supervision;
- 3 Describe and compare the percentage of teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education who use the structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured models of instructional supervision;
- 4 Describe and compare associations between selected agriculture, science, math, and English teacher educator characteristics, and the extent to which levels of the SOIL Framework were used.
- 5 Compare supervisory styles of teacher educators in agriculture from the 2001 to 2006 study.

Hypothesis 1. There will be a higher percentage of supervisors who most frequently use the structured levels of supervision in the field of Science and Agricultural education, moderately structured level in Math education, and a relatively unstructured level in English education.

Hypothesis 2. There will be differences in preferred supervisory models due to variations in respondent's supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience, and academic rank.

Thesis Organization

This thesis is divided into five structured chapters. Chapter One is a general introduction outlining needs, purposes, and objectives of the supervision study. Chapter Two is an extensive review of literature, summarizing components and major contributions to the field of instructional supervision. Chapter Three is an overview of procedures and methodology to review purpose, design and instrumentation. Chapter Four presents the findings of the supervision study and contains analysis of data collected. Chapter five is a journal article outlining the application of the supervisory options for instructional leaders' framework within the fields of agricultural, science, math, and English education. It is prepared for submission to the Journal of Agricultural Education.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The student teaching field experience is an essential component of learning to teach, and instructional supervision plays an important role in that process (Zahorik, 1988). Instructional supervision is defined by Glickman, (1990) as a process of improving instruction for the benefit of students. The interaction between teacher educator and student teacher, derived from instructional supervision, is the key component for successful communication between individuals and all stakeholders who may benefit in the process (Koehler, 1986).

Chapter Two will serve to introduce the framework of supervision and to familiarize researchers with history and trends of instructional leadership commonly seen today in the field of education. Accompanying the history of supervision and models commonly used in the field, an examination of different roles of organizational behavior will also be discussed. Individual teachers may be more satisfied with their jobs if supervisors are providing effective leadership and support (Fritz, 2002). Leadership and supervision can be directly linked with organizational theory; therefore, views and styles must be examined.

History of Supervision

Instructional supervision has evolved over time possibly due to the amount of impact educators make on the future of our society. Stakeholders in education, dating back to the sixteenth century, would have come to understand this principle, thus noting

the impact teachers have on the future for their children (Eye & Netzer, 1965).

Supervision began in the sixteenth century, according to Marks, Stoops, and Stoops (1985, p. 8) by “laymen, clergy, school wardens, trustees, selectmen, and citizens’ committees, with the intention of inspection and sake of control.”

The late eighteenth century to early nineteenth century transitioned school inspectors and laymen together in order to form an inspection of school management (Scott, 1929). Marks, et al., (1985, p.9) suggested this period of time was based on an “emphasis upon rules and maintaining standards.” Supervisors entering schools were not so much focused on teacher/student comprehension levels, but upon directing and judging the physical plant, pupil control and teaching process (Eye & Netzer, 1965). Out of this idea of supervision, when becoming a master on school inspection, the supervisor was labeled the “inspector” (Eye & Netzer, 1965, p. 5). Suzzallo (1906) suggested “thus, supervision evolved out of the function of school management and not out of the function of teaching” (Scott, 1929 p. 10).

Wiles and Bondi (1986) suggested “by the early years of the twentieth century, lay inspections of the schools had given way almost entirely to the supervisory inspection of teachers in the classroom” (p. 4). The line chart of instructional supervision in school systems had finally began to take shape (Spears, 1961). Nutt (1920) suggested “the supervisor exists for the sake of the teachers who work under his direction, and for the sake of the pupils who work under the direction of the teachers” (p. 193).

The period of cooperative group effort constituted a more collaborative approach to supervision (Eye & Netzer, 1965). However, Willis and Lovell (1975) suggested, “the emphasis was on manipulation in which teachers were to be treated kindly and

maneuvered into doing what the supervisor wanted all along.” (pg. 124). This supervisory process formed more teacher-focused methods of instructional supervision with curriculum and educational programs at the center of attention (Marks, et al., 1985). Wiles & Bondi (1986) suggested “it was during this period that instruction, and hence supervision, became specialized by subject area” (p. 5). Possibly, teachers were starting to become involved in professional development as a result of more input into instruction and program planning.

Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders

The Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework is unique in its ability to organize supervision into precise developmental levels for leaders in education (Fritz & Miller, 2003). Fritz and Miller (2004) analyzed and divided instructional supervision into three levels of supervision: structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured. The supervisory models outlined in each level provides a framework for educational leaders to utilize when evaluating which method would be best applied for supervision of individual teachers and situations. (See Figure 1.)

Clinical and conceptual models of supervision make up the left side of the SOIL Framework. These methods of supervision are structured due to step by step processes the instructional leader uses to familiarize individuals with teaching and supervision (Fritz & Miller, 2003). The structured level might primarily be used for the beginning teacher to get accustomed to new roles in the classroom, teaching techniques, and

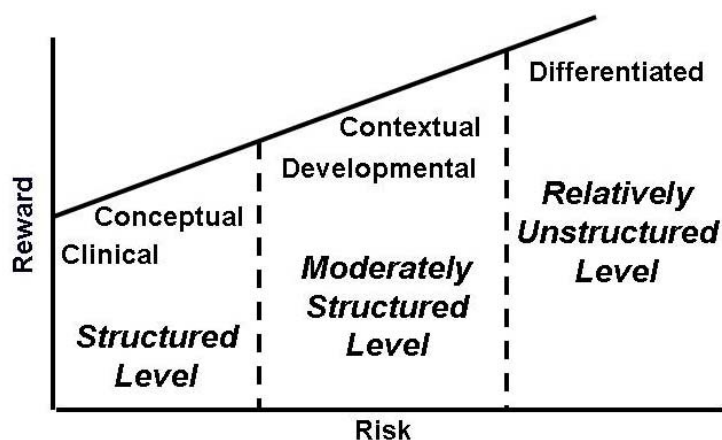


Figure 1. Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework

supervisory visits (Fritz & Miller, 2003). After completing several on site visits with the teacher, methods of supervision might become more unstructured as the teacher grows professionally. The framework places a *line of best fit* that increases as the approach to instructional supervision becomes more unstructured and individualized.

Contextual and developmental models of supervision transition the *line of best fit* into moderately unstructured levels for the supervisor to pursue (Fritz & Miller, 2003). As these approaches are being used in the model, the teaching dyad gains: maturity, self confidence and a deeper knowledge of educational practices (Fritz & Miller, 2003). Rigor, in regard to structured processes of supervision, might begin to diminish as the line increases through moderately structured methods of supervision. Reflection between teacher and supervisor promotes growth and an opportunity for ongoing communication throughout the process (Fritz & Miller, 2003). As this opportunity for reflection becomes more present in the supervisory progression, reward might increase for the teacher and supervisor.

The differentiated model of supervision makes up the relatively unstructured level for the supervisor and teacher to choose from. This method of supervision proposes the most powerful stage due to the highest level of individualized practice through: experience, specialized knowledge of the model, thorough academic preparation related to supervision, and leadership and professional development in their personal teaching area (Fritz & Miller, 2003).

Implementation of the SOIL Framework requires the instructional leader and teacher to discuss aspects pertaining to prior teaching experience, familiarity with teaching methods, and theory of pedagogy (Fritz & Miller, 2003). Teachers with more concrete teaching abilities might require more structured levels, as opposed to teachers with higher levels of abstract thinking and pedagogy. In addition, the instructional leader must be aware to evaluate his/her readiness and experience as a supervisor (Fritz & Miller, 2003).

Supervisory Models

Clinical Supervision

Student teachers have the aspiration and concern to improve instruction through examining their own teaching practices (Kent, 2001). Supervisors and student teachers have the ability to form collegial, supporting relationships through lesson analysis and collaboration of instructional objectives (Nolan, Hawkes, & Francis, 1993).

Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1993) and Cogan (1973) identified clinical supervision as being divided into five stages: 1) pre-observation conference, 2) observation, 3) analysis and strategy 4) supervision conference; and 5) post-conference

analysis. By following this model, it is possible to provide feedback and structured support for student teachers.

Pre-observation conference entails an opportunity to establish the teacher-supervisor relationship, where both parties will begin to feel comfortable with one another (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993). Structured lesson plans and activities will first be presented in order to identify proposed teaching objectives, thus maximizing a synthesis of knowledge for students (Clifford, Macy, Albi, Bricker, & Rahn, 2005).

Classroom observation allows the instructional supervisor to evaluate and analyze pedagogy in order to later assess comprehension efficiency with the student teacher (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993). A written synthesis is recorded, based on problems associated with stage one on emerging concerns evaluated during the observation stage. An accurate description, being consistent throughout the model, is completely necessary in order to provide the most effective feedback for the student teacher (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993).

The analysis/strategy stage serves to be highly effective in two general areas of purpose. The first purpose is to process observational data through synthesis and strategy. The second purpose is to organize the conference and to determine what issues will facilitate individual teacher growth (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993).

The supervision conference allows the central theme of clinical supervision to occur (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993). Feedback is provided to evaluate student performance and to help guide the student into forming his or her individual style of teaching (Kent, 2001).

Post-conference analysis provides the supervisor reflection opportunities to assess effectiveness, both professionally and with the student (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993). Post-conference activities also allow the student and supervisor the opportunity to assess and refine teaching practices (Kent, 2001).

Conceptual Supervision

Conceptual supervision promotes the formation of a relationship between the student and teacher during the initial stages of the supervision process. Trust, commitment, morale, and job satisfaction help to build the relationship between supervisor and teacher (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999). Personal factors such as trust, commitment, and collaboration are the key projections of how much effort teachers will place on professional development (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999). Conceptual frameworks have since been established in order to build upon linking members of the student teaching dyad (Silva & Dana, 2001). The structured settings of professional development schools offer teachers in pre-service development the following areas of opportunity: orientation, classroom preparation, professional meetings, and collaboration with building level faculty members (Silva & Dana, 2001).

Organizational theory of management in schools plays a large role in the feeling of self-accomplishment and satisfaction in teaching strategies (Edmeier & Nicholas, 1999). Instructional improvement, which might lead to improved student learning, could be a direct result of the contribution of organizational factors such as role ambiguity, work overload, role conflict, participative decision making, and classroom climate, especially when infused with life stage, conceptual level, experience, teaching assignment, and interpersonal factors (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999).

Professional development schools, as a means of conceptual supervision, also might offer more interaction for framework to take place. Having members of the teaching dyad present in the classroom simultaneously could enhance the relationship between both individuals.

Developmental Supervision

Glickman, Gordon, & Ross (2001) defined developmental supervision as “the match of initial supervisory approach with the teacher’s or group’s developmental levels, expertise, and commitment” (p. 197). Based upon these characteristics outlined for developmental supervision, a behavior continuum is present entailing four supervisory approaches for the teacher educator: directive control, directive informational, collaborative, and nondirective. Teachers functioning at low levels of development will be matched with directive supervision. In this stage of growth, teachers have a difficult time in making decisions and defining problems; therefore, they have fewer ways of responding to problems, and are unlikely to accept decision-making responsibilities (Glickman et al., 2001). Teacher educators are placed as experts and in charge of writing goals for the teacher to use and follow. The supervisor will then instruct the teacher on how and when the goals are to be accomplished (Glickman et al., 2001).

Teachers who are functioning at moderate developmental levels are described as functioning at the formal operations stage of cognitive development. Individuals functioning with moderate developmental levels, expertise, and commitment are best served by a collaborative supervisory approach. In this type of collaboration, the teacher educator and teacher negotiate action plans and goals together (Glickman et al., 2001).

Independence is then met by using self direction, and moderate guidance needed to assure the plan will lead to instructional improvement.

Teachers functioning at high developmental levels, expertise and commitment are ready for self-direction fostered by the nondirective supervisory approach (Glickman et al., 2001). Characteristics of the teacher ready for self-direction would include that of being autonomous, explorative, and creative. These teachers would also be capable of abstract thinking and higher order thinking skills in the classroom (Glickman et al., 2001). Applying these supervisory approaches for developmental supervision can be made possible using three phases of induction by the teacher educator (Glickman et al., 2001).

Choosing the best approach requires the supervisor to assess a pre-service teacher's developmental level, expertise, and commitment to instructional improvement (Glickman et al., 2001). Different ways of choosing the best approach might be to observe the teacher in a classroom delivering instruction to students, or to evaluate the degree of collaboration with other faculty members in the school (Glickman et al., 2001). Organizational relationships between the supervisor and the group or individual receiving supervision must be clearly examined in order to determine which approach is most appropriate (Glickman et al., 2001).

Applying the chosen approach requires the supervisor to evaluate cognitive levels of those being supervised. Persons with low conceptual levels of cognitive development generally will evaluate things in a simple, concrete fashion, thus needing a higher degree of directive control. Persons with moderate conceptual levels of cognitive development will become more abstract in their thinking and begin to formulate solutions to possible

problems being encountered, but still need the assistance of directive informational supervision. Persons of high conceptual levels of cognitive development are abstract thinkers. Being capable of independence to self-actualize, and synthesize complex situations calls for supervision to be more collaborative and nondirective (Glickman et al., 2001).

Fostering teacher development matches the best supervisory approach to the current teacher or group's conceptual level for professional growth (Glickman et al., 2001). Over a period of time, the teacher is then introduced to innovative teaching techniques, problem-solving, student learning, and a broader knowledge of theory and practice. The supervisor will then become less involved and assign teachers to decision-making teams to foster professional interaction with other teachers (Glickman et al., 2001).

Contextual Supervision

With foundations laid through the original clinical supervision model, contextual supervision furthers professional development through a mentorship with the supervisor (Ralph, 2003). Contextual supervision provides a model for the supervisor to link situational behavior of the teacher to physical and psychological environments in the school, i. e. social, organizational, political, cultural, and economic variables (Ralph, 2003). The focus of contextual supervision is the ability of the person in the mentorship role to vary his/her supervisory style according to the person being supervised. As the person being supervised progresses in his/her level of development, the supervisor will then adjust accordingly based on four dimensions of the situational leadership style:

telling/directing, selling/coaching, participating/supporting, delegating/observing (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Telling/directing phase targets supervision techniques applying to individuals with low competence and commitment to self, or to those unable to properly perform in the classroom (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). Competence implies a degree of control over all environmental factors, both physical and social, to a degree of manipulation of all variables. These individuals do not set back and wait passively for things to engage; rather they initiate progress in any situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). Commitment to self identifies positive characteristics of the manager in many environments. Excellent managers in the classroom would not be self serving or selfish, rather a positive force in all situations. These individuals also demonstrate the ability to combine strength with a sense of humility, and the capability to receive constructive criticism (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). When these characteristics are not present in the classroom, the supervisor takes a highly directive role to provide a working structure for lessons, activities, and a strict process for how the individual is supervised (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Selling/coaching phase applies to individuals with some competence and variable commitment, but to those who lack in motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). The individual might perform the job at hand, but sometimes becomes over confident as a result. In this case, the supervisor must approach the model with selling or explaining different options for the individual instead of risking possible resistance (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Participating/selling phase is geared towards individuals which exhibit high competence and variable commitment to teaching, however they might be distracted or insecure once in the classroom. The supervisor should incorporate methods to this individual that are low task focused and high relationship focused. An efficient way to practice this type of supervision would entail day to day feedback, as well as developmental activities geared towards enhancing teacher performance (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Finally, Delegating/Observing incorporates relatively unstructured models of instructional supervision to those with high competence, commitment, and motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). If the individual is capable, and highly motivated to do their job, the supervisor will then allow them to be fully engaged with limited direct supervision (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Differentiated Supervision

Differentiated supervision allows the teacher to select the type of supervision model and evaluate services received from the teacher educator (Glatthorn, 1997). In addition, the teacher may choose to select one model of supervision best fitted to the teacher's personal style of development. Glatthorn (1997) suggested four supervisory options: intensive development, cooperative professional development, self-directed development, and administrative monitoring.

Intensive development stresses professional growth through collaboration and an open relationship between the teacher and supervisor (Glatthorn, 1997). Evaluation is generally not included in professional development due to the amount of reflection and collaborative inquiry initiated by the supervisor (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997)

suggested eight functions to put theory into practice for intensive development. First, the taking stock conference allows both individuals in the supervisory process the opportunity to assess their relationship in terms of three general issues: the supervisory contract, the context for teaching, and beliefs of supervisor and teacher (Glatthorn, 1997).

Second, third, fourth and fifth functions are operational stages taken from clinical supervision which allow pre-observation conferences, diagnostic observations, analysis of diagnostic observations, and debriefing conferences. These increase the productivity of the observational process by giving the supervisor and the teacher time to assess learning related issues such as outcomes, students' work, assessment, and overall nature of the lesson (Glatthorn, 1997).

Sixth, the coaching session, allows the opportunity to provide systematic training through developing knowledge and demonstration of a skill, facilitation of guided practice, and a plan for independent practice (Glatthorn, 1997). Seventh, focused observation, allows a more structured part of intensive development with emphasis placed on seating charts, checklists of specific behaviors, time and quantity records, and exchange lists of related information (Glatthorn, 1997). Finally, eighth, the supervisor and teacher review supervisory data and relate it to patterns of observable student behaviors.

Cooperative professional development strengthens the linkage between instructional improvement in the school and teacher growth (Glatthorn, 1997). The most efficient way for instructional and personal growth to occur is for a two or three teacher team to go through the mentoring process together. The participants would observe each other's classes then provide feedback on each other's methods of teaching. Several

advantages are present for the cooperative model, including rewards for teacher professionalism, reducing isolation issues from other faculty members in the school, collaboration about professional issues, new ideas, and help and input from concerned colleagues (Glatthorn, 1997). The supervisor then has more time to serve as a mediator for discussion and interaction as a result of mentoring groups working together in the supervisory process.

Self-directed development enhances the opportunity for professional growth as a result of reflection on teaching skills and techniques (Glatthorn, 1997). Although interacting occasionally with supervisors, the teacher works toward developing individual initiatives. The teacher will set goals at the beginning of the year, develop a plan to achieve set goals, carry out the plan, and assess progress in order to be evaluated on performance (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) suggested these goals should pertain to professional roles, skills of teaching, subject specific skills, and goals based on mixed sources.

Administrative monitoring requires the supervisor to establish certain criteria for performance and growth of teachers in the classroom. Evaluation systems of the past have become ineffective for growth of the educator (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) suggested professional evaluation systems that emphasize growth instead of accountability. Differentiated supervision models emphasized two types of evaluation: intensive evaluation, making personnel decisions such as tenure, and standard evaluation, which would comply with state or district mandates on procedures for education (Glatthorn, 1997).

Risk/Reward

Risk is defined as the capability “to expose oneself to a significant chance of injury or loss” (Hardaker, Huirne, & Anderson, 1997). Fritz and Miller (2004) suggested that some examples of risks applicable to the instructional leader as a result of engaging teachers in relatively unstructured levels of supervision could be: 1) colleagues criticizing work ethic, 2) losing identity of a job title, 3) teachers’ not fulfilling their responsibilities, and 4) accountability for teaching performance. Structured levels of supervision might require less risk for the instructional leader; as a result, rewards might also be somewhat limited. Moderately structured or relatively unstructured levels of supervision require the supervisor to acquire more risk with teachers, but factors of reward might also increase (Fritz & Miller, 2003).

Reward is defined as “something given or offered for some service or attainment” (Merriam-Webster’s Dictionary, 2007). Fritz and Miller (2004) suggested rewards that could be gained by the instructional leader engaging in more teacher-driven types of supervision could be: 1) reflection opportunities for the teacher to measure growth over time, 2) flexibility for the instructional leader, 3) collaboration opportunities for the instructional leader and teacher, and 4) job satisfaction. Both risk/reward factors apply to teacher’s developmental levels such as: teaching experience, teaching skills, leadership ability, professional development, and should be evaluated when choosing supervisory options (Fritz & Miller, 2003).

Organizational Behavior and Leadership in Education

Owens and Valesky (2007) defined organizational behavior as “a field of social-scientific study and application to administrative practice that seeks to understand and use knowledge of human behavior in social and cultural settings for the improvement of organizational performance” (p. 81). Organizational behavior seeks to apply social science research to solve problems that will improve the performance and relationships within an organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). People in diverse cultural settings accept certain implicit assumptions about human nature, the nature of relationships, the nature of human activity, and the relationships between people and their environment (Owens & Valesky, 2007). School systems are part of an organizational theory which explains how the day to day operations are ran and how teachers will interact in the educational environment. The type of leadership and supervision from the principal, teacher educator, and mentoring teacher determines what type of experience the student teacher will have during the student teaching or internship. A close examination of organizational theory should be present when placing student teachers for their internship and while determining the style of supervision to utilize. Two types of organizational behavior to examine are bureaucratic and human resources development.

Bureaucratic Views

The bureaucratic approach to organizational behavior and management tends to focus on certain mechanisms in dealing with issues of controlling and coordinating the behavior of certain people within an organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). The supervisor, in this form of administration, might maintain hierarchical control of authority, decision-making, and communication. In addition, close supervision of those

in lower ranks is also part of the supervisor being an inspector and evaluator (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Clear plans and schedules might also be very important to the individual with a bureaucratic style of supervision. Guides, handbooks, standards, rules and regulations, and schedules are all organizational characteristics of the bureaucratic supervisor (Owens & Valesky, 2007). This method of supervision in an organization leads to a top-down approach for decision making purposes. Decisions are made for stakeholders in education at the supervisory level, and then handed down for teachers and other professionals to follow (Owens & Valesky, 2007). A clinical approach to supervision is comparative to this type of organization theory. Directive control of methods of teaching in the classroom is facilitated through strict teaching handbooks, lesson plan analysis, observation conferences, discussion boards, and reflective exercises.

Human Resources Development Views

The teacher is at the forefront of participative decision-making in the human resource development viewpoint. The teacher provides input for any decision being made that will directly impact instructional content or the classroom setting (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Goals of the organization are achieved through evaluating teachers' performance, commitment, abilities and energies rather than through a set of written rules and close supervision (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Individual commitment and participant involvement in the organization may bring more dimensions to school culture as it evolves and changes through time, thus providing powerful motivation for dependable performance (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Chapter III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Supervision Survey

This sample study was descriptive in nature. The population consisted of 123 Land Grant and 1890 Institutions, Tribal Colleges and Liberal Art Colleges in the United States. Agricultural educator's names, and institutions, were acquired through a search from the American Association for Agricultural Education Directory (Cartmell, 2005). English, math, and science land grant institutions were chosen from professional organizations respective of their content area. Department heads (agricultural, English, math, and science education) from each institution were either contacted by phone or email to evaluate interest in the study and willingness to participate. Department heads also provided a list of teacher educators responsible for supervising student teachers. As a result, 275 surveys were sent and 196 teacher educators chose to respond. The reader is cautioned not to generalize beyond the sample size in the study.

A questionnaire was developed by the author based on a review of literature about supervision and from the proposed Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework developed by Fritz and Miller (2004). Portions of the questionnaire that were relevant to this report included behavioral questions that were related to a particular supervisory model and demographic questions.

Respondents were instructed to indicate to what extent they engaged in a specific behavior related to student teacher supervision. One behavior appeared in each statement and the behavior was related to a specific type of supervisory model. Types included

were clinical supervision, contextual supervision, and differentiated supervision. The total number of questions representing each type of supervisory model was: five for clinical supervision, five for contextual supervision, and one for differentiated supervision. This section was quantified using a Likert-type scale consisting of the following choices: Never=1, Sometimes=2, Often=3, and Always=4. One model was selected to represent each level of the SOIL Framework. Clinical supervision represented the structured level, contextual supervision represented the moderately structured level, and differentiated supervision represented the relatively unstructured level.

A panel of experts on instructional supervision determined the content and face validity of the questionnaire. This panel consisted of Dr. Edwin Ralph, founder of contextual supervision, from the University of Saskatchewan; Dr. Allan Glatthorn, founder of differentiated supervision, from East Carolina University; and Dr. Robert Martin, a teacher educator in agricultural education who has published research on instructional supervision, from Iowa State University. In order to establish a test-retest reliability coefficient, the questionnaire was initially pilot-tested with a group of nine secondary education supervisors from the College of Education at Iowa State University. The test-retest interval was two weeks. Scales with reliability coefficients of less than .70 were revised. A participant from the pilot study group was consulted about how best to revise these questions. A second pilot-test group, consisting of five teacher educators in agricultural education from Iowa State University, participated in a test-retest of the revised questionnaire. The test-retest interval for the second pilot study was two weeks. Reliability coefficients, based on data from the second pilot study, were .86 for clinical supervision, .71 for contextual supervision, and .80 for differentiated supervision.

Data was collected by a mailed questionnaire sent out to teacher educators and Department Heads in April 2006. The questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter and a stamped return envelope, was sent to teacher educators or the Department Head in each content area. The Department Head then distributed the surveys to individuals willing to participate in the study. There were 275 surveys sent out in the initial mailing. In May 2006, a second questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter and a stamped return envelope, was sent to non-respondents urging for their participation in the study. In total, 196 of 275 questionnaires were completed and returned, for a response rate of 71%. Non-response error was handled by comparing early to late respondents (Miller & Smith, 1983). Early respondents were classified as the first half of respondents to return the survey, and late respondents were the second half of respondents to return the survey. No statistically significant differences were found on the supervisory behavior questions or the demographic variables between the early and late respondents.

All data were analyzed using SPSS. The statistics deemed appropriate for the study included frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, analysis of variance and correlations. An alpha level of .05 was set *a priori*. Davis' (1971) descriptors were used to interpret the magnitude of all associations.

Figure 2 shows Davis' convention for interpreting correlation coefficients. Davis' convention has descriptors associated with making relationships based on adjectives of magnitude (Davis, 1971). In times when not using inferential statistics, a correlation coefficient should be interpreted in order to not be misleading.

Table 1. Davis Convention for Describing the Magnitude of Correlations

R	Adjectives
1.0	Perfect
.70-.99	Very High
.50-.69	Substantial
.30-.49	Moderate
.10-.29	Low
.01-.09	Negligible

Chapter IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

Chapter four is structured to define the five objectives of the study. Each objective contains an interpretation of data pertaining to the survey instrument completed by respondents. Following the interpretation of data, tables will be shown for researchers to examine results presented.

Instrument Development

Descriptive correlation type research is represented throughout this study. An instrument was developed to evaluate methods of supervision used by agriculture, science, math, and English teacher educators across the United States. Likert-type scale questions were developed to target responses based on each level of supervision from the SOIL Framework.

Objective 1 Describe and compare characteristics of teacher educators in Agriculture, Science, Math, and English education who supervised student teachers from September 1, 2005 – May 31, 2006.

Characteristics

Teacher educators who participated in this study were Professors (27.0%, n=53), Associate Professors (26.5%, n=52), Assistant Professors (24%, n=47), a Visiting Professor (1.0%, n=2), Instructors (6.1%, n=12), Graduate Assistants (3.6%, n=7), and Other Professionals (10.7%, n=21). The majority of respondents were male (76.5%, n=150), with females being the minority (21.9%, n=43). A majority of the teacher

educators had attained tenure (52.6%, n=103) and 78.1% (n=153) had received formal training in supervision.

Respondents' characteristics are summarized in Table 2. In the course of the 2005 – 2006 school year, supervisors reported they had an average of about eight student teachers or interns under their supervision. The supervisors had an average of 8.45 years in teaching experience at the secondary level, and had devoted an average of 54.29% of their time to supervising student teachers and interns. The respondents reported that they visited student teachers or interns an average of 3.77 times during the documented school year, with an average of nearly four and one-half hours spent during each visit. The average teacher educator had supervised student teachers 13.21 years. In addition, teacher educators had supervised an average of 3.50 student teachers or interns from August to December, 2005, and an average of 4.75 student teachers or interns from January to May, 2006. The total numbers of student teachers and interns, during the 2004-2005 school year, is consistent with the average numbers of student teachers or interns (m=8) that were supervised during the 2005-2006 academic school year.

Objective 2 Determine and compare the extent to which teacher educators in Agriculture, Science, Math, and English education used select models of instructional supervision.

Use of Selected Models of Instructional Supervision

The extent to which teacher educators used a particular supervisory model is displayed in Table 3. Each level of the SOIL Framework—structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured—was represented by one supervisory model. The supervisory model chosen to represent structured supervision was clinical. Contextual

Table 2. Characteristics of Teacher Educators who Supervised Student Teachers and Interns during the 2005-2006 School Year

Item	<i>N</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Years of experience in supervising student teachers or interns	195	1-41	13.21	9.59
Number of student teachers or interns supervised from September 1, 2004- May 31, 2005 by each supervisor	191	0-40	8.33	7.28
Years of experience teaching in secondary education	193	0-37	8.45	8.10
Percentage of time devoted to supervising student teachers by each supervisor	183	0-100	54.29	31.27
On site visits to each student teacher or interns during his/her teaching experience	190	0-15	3.77	2.09
Hours spent with student teacher or intern during each visit	193	1-44	4.26	3.65
Number of student teachers or interns supervised from August, 2005-December, 2005	178	0-20	3.50	4.25
Number of student teachers or interns supervised from January, 2006-May, 2006	189	0-20	4.75	4.23

Table 3. The Extent That Teacher Educators in Math, Science, English, Agricultural Education and Other Professionals Used Components of Different Supervisory Models.

Supervisory Model	<i>N</i>	<i>M^a</i>
<i>Clinical</i>		
Math	12	3.40
Science	15	3.25
English	15	3.35
AgEd	133	3.43
Other	19	3.63
<i>Contextual</i>		
Math	12	3.17
Science	15	3.52
English	15	3.72
AgEd	132	3.51
Other	19	3.50
<i>Differentiated</i>		
Math	12	1.42
Science	14	1.64
English	15	1.60
AgEd	134	1.51
Other	19	1.68

^aNote. Likert Scale: 1-1.5=Never, 1.51-2.5=Sometimes, 2.51-3.5=Often, 3.51-4=Always

supervision represented moderately structured supervision and differentiated supervision was chosen to represent the relatively unstructured model of supervision.

Table 3 displays the level of the SOIL Framework that teacher educators tended to use most often when supervising student teachers and interns. Other professionals who were supervising interns preferred the clinical supervision model over the contextual and differentiated models. Supervisors of student teachers who taught English (M=3.7200), science (M=3.5200), and agricultural education (M=3.5100) were most likely to *always* use contextual supervision. Supervisors of math instruction differed slightly from supervisors of other subject areas in that they reported using contextual *often* as opposed to *always*. Differentiated supervision was virtually never used by any category of supervisors. Table 4 displays the significance of supervision models among different academic disciplines. There appears to be statistical significance (.050) between the contextual supervision (moderately structured) level of the SOIL Framework and the type of teacher educator who utilized contextual supervision. To break down the data further, Table 5 describes the significant difference in the type of teacher educator who utilized the contextual supervisory model. Supervisors of student teachers who taught English (M=3.7200); science (M=3.5200), and agricultural education supervisors (M= 3.5100) were most likely to *always* use contextual supervision. However, supervisors of math instruction reported utilizing contextual supervision *often* as opposed to *always* (M=3.1667).

Table 4. Significance of the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Supervision Utilized by Math, Science, Agricultural Education, English and Other Teacher Educators

Supervisory Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Structured (Clinical)					
Between Groups	1.355	4	.339	2.042	.090
Within Groups	31.636	189	.166		
Total	32.718	193			
Moderately Structured (Contextual)					
Between Groups	2.075	4	.519	2.370	.050*
Within Groups	41.165	188	.219		
Total	43.240	192			
Relatively Unstructured (Differentiated)					
Between Groups	.864	4	.216	.302	.877
Within Groups	135.306	189	.716		
Total	136.170	193			

*Note. * Significant at the .05 alpha level

Table 5. Mean Scores of University Supervisors in Math, Science, English and Agricultural Education who Utilized the Moderately Structured Levels of Supervision

Supervisory Model/Type of Supervisor	N	M^a
Contextual		
Math	12	3.1667 A*
AgEd	132	3.5100 B
Science	15	3.5200 B
English	15	3.7200 B

^aNote. Likert Scale: 1-1.5=Never, 1.51-2.5=Sometimes, 2.51-3.5=Often, 3.51-4=Always

*Note. Mean Scores with different letters beside them indicate different mean scores by using the Duncan's Post-hoc test. *

Objective 3 Describe and Compare the Percentage of Teacher Educators in Agriculture, Science, Math, and English Education who use the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Instructional Supervision.

Hypothesis One: There will be a higher percentage of supervisors who most frequently use the structured levels of supervision in the field of science and agricultural education, moderately structured level in math education, and a relatively unstructured level in English education.

Based on the survey data in Table 6, the moderately structured approach of instructional supervision was most often used by teacher educators (52%), followed by the clinical supervision (43.4%) and then the relatively unstructured level (4.6%).

Hypothesis one was not supported by the data.

Objective 4 Describe and Compare Associations Between Selected Agricultural Education, Science, Math, and English Teacher Educator Characteristics, and to the Extent to which Levels of the SOIL Framework Were Used.

Hypothesis 2: There will be differences in preferred supervisory models due to variations in respondent's supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience, and academic rank.

Table 7 illustrates the relationships between the level of SOIL Framework and supervisor maturity indicators: supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience, and rank in all academic areas. Davis' convention for interpreting correlation coefficients was used to describe the magnitude of the relationships of teacher educator maturity characteristics and the extent to which levels of the SOIL Framework were used. When analyzing the data, negligible relationships exist among supervisory maturity and the teacher educator's supervisory selection. Therefore, this cannot explain why supervisors use different levels of the SOIL Framework in supervision. Hypothesis two was not supported by the data.

Table 6. Percentages of Teacher Educators who used the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Instructional Supervision.

Level of Supervision	f	%
Structured		
Math	9	75.0
Science	6	40.0
English	4	26.7
AgEd	56	41.5
Other	10	52.6
Total:	85	43.4%
Moderately Structured		
Math	3	25.0
Science	9	60.0
English	10	66.7
AgEd	72	53.3
Other	8	42.1
Total:	102	52.0%
Relatively Unstructured		
Math	0	0
Science	0	0
English	1	6.7
AgEd	7	5.2
Other	1	5.3
Total:	9	4.6%

Table 7. Relationships Between Level of the SOIL Framework and Supervisory Experience, Formal Training, Cooperating Teacher Experience, and Academic Rank in Agricultural, Science, Math, and English Education

	Association	Magnitude
Supervisory Experience	-.034 ^a	Negligible
Formal Training	.002 ^a	Negligible
Cooperating Teacher Experience	-.027 ^a	Negligible
Rank	.080 ^a	Negligible

^ar

Objective 5 Compare supervisory styles of teacher educators in agriculture from the 2001 study to teacher educators in agriculture in 2006 study.

This same supervision study was conducted in 2001 with teacher educators in agricultural education. In 2006, the study included teacher educators in agricultural education along with other academic disciplines such as math, science and English. Table 8 shows the comparison of supervisory models utilized by teacher educators in agricultural education between the 2001 to 2006 study. Comparison of mean scores indicates a slight difference from the study conducted in 2001 to the 2006 study of supervisory models utilized. The clinical model of supervision was *always* used in the 2001 study and now is *often* being used. The conceptual supervisory model is still used *only often*, and the differentiated supervisory model still is never *used*.

Table 8. Comparison of Supervisory Styles of Teacher Educators in Agricultural Education from 2003 Study to Teacher Educators in Agricultural Education in 2008

Supervision Style	2001 Study	2006 Study
Clinical	3.56	3.43
Contextual	3.45	3.47
Differentiated	1.70	1.51

**Note.* Likert Scale: 1-1.5=Never, 1.51-2.5=Sometimes, 2.51-3.5=Often, 3.51-4=Always

Chapter V

THE APPLICATION OF THE SUPERVISORY OPTIONS FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS FRAMEWORK WITHIN THE FIELDS OF AGRICULTURAL, SCIENCE, MATH, AND ENGLISH EDUCATION

(An article prepared for submission to the Journal of Agricultural Education)

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine specific types of supervisory methods used in diverse academic subjects to fulfill personal and professional growth in student teachers and interns. The study sought to compare agriculture, science, math and English teacher educator characteristics and the extent to which the three levels of the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework—structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured—were used. Surveys were collected from 196 student teacher and intern supervisors throughout the United States. The study revealed that demographic associations appeared to have no bearing on the type of supervisory methods used. Supervisors of student teachers and interns who taught English, science, and agricultural education were most likely to *always* use moderately structured levels of supervision. Supervisors of math instruction reported using moderately structured levels of supervision *often* as opposed to *always*. The relatively unstructured level of supervision was virtually *never* utilized by supervisors of any subject areas.

Introduction

Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) defined instructional supervision as “the behavior officially designated by the organization that affects teacher behavior in such a

way as to facilitate pupil learning and to achieve the goals of the organization” (p. 43).

Beach and Reihartz (1989) regarded instructional supervision as “a multifaceted process that focuses on instruction and provides teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills for improved performance” (p. 2). Hoy and Forsyth (1986) described the purpose of supervision as “neither to make judgments about the competence of teachers nor to control them but rather to work cooperatively with them” (p. 3). While there are many opinions regarding supervision among teachers in the public school system, a basic definition can be formulated to make supervision applicable across all academic backgrounds. A general definition of supervision could encompass anything that stimulates a better understanding of pedagogy in a specific area of instruction.

Instructional supervision is unique because methods used can be tailored to diverse teacher populations. In addition, demographics regarding schools and school systems are unique, and no two programs are identical. Moreover, the *open system* approach to contingency theory in education addresses the assumption that school systems should represent the environment in which they are placed and interact with that environment (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

The process of supervision for the teacher educator has evolved tremendously over the course of time. Some educators feel the supervision of teachers in the school setting is unnecessary and could be an obstacle for effective teaching (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971). Supporters of this idea align their supervisory philosophy with primitive models of supervision which are grounded in industrial management principles (Wiles & Bondi, 1986). Some examples of industrial management principles are control,

compliance and authority and each principle is embedded in the supervisory process (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1971).

However, a paradigm shift towards a more collegial style of leadership from the teacher educator has occurred in recent years. The paradigm shift has provided for more participative decision-making and collaborative models of supervision for the teacher. With more teacher involvement and decision making responsibilities, the supervisory-teacher relationship could have a direct effect on satisfaction in teaching (Edmeirer & Nicholas, 1999). Fritz (2002) suggested “how a supervisor defines supervision and the process of conducting a supervisory visit may/may not affect the happiness of the teacher” (p. 1). In relationship to this concept of school systems and environments, several questions remain. For example, should different programs of curriculum be supervised in different ways? What are common models of supervision being used by teacher educators, and are there similarities when compared to different content areas?

Theoretical Framework

Teacher educators should be aware of different approaches of instructional supervision, determine which model best suits their academic area, and decide to what extent the model is appropriate for stakeholders involved. Fritz and Miller (2004) developed the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework to provide such information. In the SOIL Framework (Fritz and Miller, 2004) there are two features which directly apply to stakeholders: *risk* and *reward*.

Risk is defined as the capability “to expose oneself to a significant chance of injury or loss” (Hardaker, Huirne, & Anderson, 1997). Fritz and Miller (2004) suggested

that some examples of risks applicable to the instructional leader as a result of engaging teachers in relatively unstructured levels of supervision could be: 1) colleagues criticizing work ethic, 2) losing identity of a job title, 3) teachers' not fulfilling their responsibilities, and 4) accountability for teaching performance. Structured levels of supervision might require less risk for the instructional leader; as a result, rewards might also be somewhat limited. Moderately structured or relatively unstructured levels of supervision require the supervisor to acquire more risk with teachers, but factors of reward might also increase (Fritz & Miller, 2003).

Reward is defined as "something given or offered for some service or attainment" (Merriam-Webster's Dictionary, 2007). Fritz and Miller (2004) suggested rewards that could be gained by the instructional leader engaging in more teacher-driven types of supervision could be: 1) reflection opportunities for the teacher to measure growth over time, 2) flexibility for the instructional leader, 3) collaboration opportunities for the instructional leader and teacher, and 4) job satisfaction. Both risk/reward factors apply to teacher's developmental levels such as: teaching experience, teaching skills, leadership ability, professional development, and should be evaluated when choosing supervisory options (Fritz & Miller, 2003). In addition, the SOIL Framework (Figure 2) is divided into three levels: structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured models of supervision.

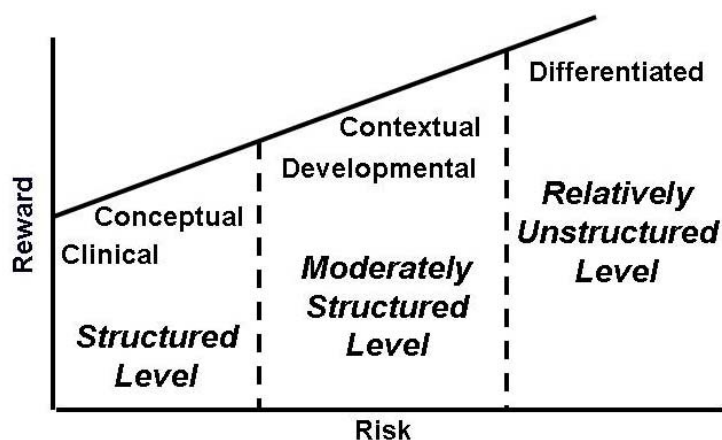


Figure 2. Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework

Structured Level

The clinical and conceptual supervisory models were chosen to represent the category of structured supervision in this study. Research on clinical supervision indicates that student teachers have the aspiration and concern to improve instruction through examining their own teaching practices (Kent, 2001). Supervisors and student teachers have the ability to form collegial, supporting relationships through lesson analysis and collaboration of instructional objectives (Nolan, Hawkes, & Francis, 1993). Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1993) and Cogan (1973) identified clinical supervision as being divided into five stages: 1) pre-observation conference, 2) observation, 3) analysis and strategy 4) supervision conference; and 5) post-conference analysis. By following this model, it is possible to provide feedback and structured support for student teachers.

Pre-observation conference entails an opportunity to establish the teacher-supervisor relationship, where both parties will begin to feel comfortable with one another (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993). Structured lesson plans and activities will first be presented in order to identify proposed teaching objectives, thus maximizing a synthesis of knowledge for students (Clifford, Macy, Albi, Bricker, & Rahn, 2005).

Classroom observation allows the instructional supervisor to evaluate and analyze pedagogy in order to later assess comprehension efficiency with the student teacher (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993). A written synthesis is recorded, based on problems associated with stage one on emerging concerns evaluated during the observation stage. An accurate description, being consistent throughout the model, is completely necessary in order to provide the most effective feedback for the student teacher (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993).

The analysis/strategy stage serves to be highly effective in two general areas of purpose. The first purpose is to process observational data through synthesis and strategy. The second purpose is to organize the conference and to determine what issues will facilitate individual teacher growth (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer et al., 1993).

The supervision conference allows the central theme of clinical supervision to occur (Goldhammer et al., 1993). Feedback is provided to evaluate student performance and to help guide the student into forming his or her individual style of teaching (Kent, 2001).

Post-conference analysis provides the supervisor reflection opportunities to assess effectiveness, both professionally and with the student (Goldhammer et al., 1993). Post-

conference activities also allow the student and supervisor the opportunity to assess and refine teaching practices (Kent, 2001).

Conceptual supervision, the second model chosen in to represent structured level, promotes the formation of a relationship between the student and teacher during the initial stages of the supervision process. Trust, commitment, morale, and job satisfaction help to build the relationship between supervisor and teacher (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999). Personal factors such as trust, commitment, and collaboration are the key projections of how much effort teachers will place on professional development (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999). Conceptual frameworks have since been established in order to build upon linking members of the student teaching dyad (Silva & Dana, 2001). The structured settings of professional development schools offer teachers in pre-service development the following areas of opportunity: orientation, classroom preparation, professional meetings, and collaboration with building level faculty members (Silva & Dana, 2001).

Organizational theory of management in schools plays a large role in the feeling of self-accomplishment and satisfaction in teaching strategies (Ebmeier & Nicholas, 1999). Instructional improvement, which might lead to improved student learning, could be a direct result of the contribution of organizational factors such as role ambiguity, work overload, role conflict, participative decision making, and classroom climate, especially when infused with life stage, conceptual level, experience, teaching assignment, and interpersonal factors (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999).

Professional development schools, as a means of conceptual supervision, also might offer more interaction for framework to take place. Having members of the

teaching dyad present in the classroom simultaneously could enhance the relationship between both individuals.

Moderately Structured Level

With foundations laid through the original clinical supervision model, contextual supervision, the model chosen to represent the moderately structured method of supervision, furthers professional development through a mentorship with the supervisor (Ralph, 2003). Contextual supervision provides a model for the supervisor to link situational behavior of the teacher to physical and psychological environments in the school, i. e. social, organizational, political, cultural, and economic variables (Ralph, 2003). The focus of contextual supervision is the ability of the person in the mentorship role to vary his/her supervisory style according to the person being supervised. As the person being supervised progresses in his/her level of development, the supervisor will then adjust accordingly based on four dimensions of the situational leadership style: telling/directing, selling/coaching, participating/supporting, delegating/observing (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Telling/directing phase targets supervision techniques applying to individuals with low competence and commitment to self, or to those unable to properly perform in the classroom (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). Competence implies a degree of control over all environmental factors, both physical and social, to a degree of manipulation of all variables. These individuals do not set back and wait passively for things to engage; rather they initiate progress in any situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). Commitment to self identifies positive characteristics of the manager in many environments. Excellent managers in the classroom would not be self-

serving or selfish, rather a positive force in all situations. These individuals also demonstrate the ability to combine strength with a sense of humility, and the capability to receive constructive criticism (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). When these characteristics are not present in the classroom, the supervisor takes a highly directive role to provide a working structure for lessons, activities, and a strict process for how the individual is supervised (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Selling/coaching phase applies to individuals with some competence and variable commitment, but to those who lack in motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). The individual might perform the job at hand, but sometimes becomes over confident as a result. In this case, the supervisor must approach the model with selling or explaining different options for the individual instead of risking possible resistance (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Participating/selling phase is geared towards individuals which exhibit high competence and variable commitment to teaching, however they might be distracted or insecure once in the classroom. The supervisor should incorporate methods of supervision which are low task focused and high relationship focused. An efficient way to practice this type of supervision would entail day to day feedback, as well as developmental activities geared towards enhancing teacher performance (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Finally, the delegating/observing phase incorporates relatively unstructured models of instructional supervision to those with high competence, commitment, and motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003). If the individual is capable, and

highly motivated to do his or her job, the supervisor will then allow them to be fully engaged with limited direct supervision (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007; Ralph, 2003).

Relatively Unstructured Level

Differentiated supervision served as the model chosen to represent the relatively unstructured style of supervision. This model provides an opportunity for the teacher to select the type of supervision model he/she will receive and to evaluate services received from the teacher educator (Glatthorn, 1997). In addition, the teacher may choose to select one model of supervision best fitted to the teacher's personal style of development. Glatthorn (1997) suggested four supervisory options: intensive development, cooperative professional development, self-directed development, and administrative monitoring. Intensive development stresses professional growth through collaboration and an open relationship between the teacher and supervisor (Glatthorn, 1997). Evaluation is generally not included in professional development due to the amount of reflection and collaborative inquiry initiated by the supervisor (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) suggested eight functions to put theory into practice for intensive development. First, the taking stock conference allows both individuals in the supervisory process the opportunity to assess their relationship in terms of three general issues: the supervisory contract, the context for teaching, and beliefs of supervisor and teacher (Glatthorn, 1997).

Second, third, fourth and fifth functions are operational stages taken from clinical supervision which allow pre-observation conferences, diagnostic observations, analysis of diagnostic observations, and debriefing conferences. These increase the productivity of the observational process by giving the supervisor and the teacher time to assess

learning related issues such as outcomes, students' work, assessment, and overall nature of the lesson (Glatthorn, 1997).

Sixth, the coaching session, allows the opportunity to provide systematic training through developing knowledge and demonstration of a skill, facilitation of guided practice, and a plan for independent practice (Glatthorn, 1997). Seventh, focused observation, allows a more structured part of intensive development with emphasis placed on seating charts, checklists of specific behaviors, time and quantity records, and exchange lists of related information (Glatthorn, 1997). Finally, eighth, the supervisor and teacher review supervisory data and relate it to patterns of observable student behaviors.

Cooperative professional development strengthens the linkage between instructional improvement in the school and teacher growth (Glatthorn, 1997). The most efficient way for instructional and personal growth to occur is for a two or three teacher team to go through the mentoring process together. The participants would observe each other's classes then provide feedback on each other's methods of teaching. Several advantages are present for the cooperative model, including rewards for teacher professionalism, reducing isolation issues from other faculty members in the school, collaboration about professional issues, new ideas, and help and input from concerned colleagues (Glatthorn, 1997). The supervisor then has more time to serve as a mediator for discussion and interaction as a result of mentoring groups working together in the supervisory process.

Self-directed development enhances the opportunity for professional growth as a result of reflection on teaching skills and techniques (Glatthorn, 1997). Although

interacting occasionally with supervisors, the teacher works toward developing individual initiatives. The teacher will set goals at the beginning of the year, develop a plan to achieve set goals, carry out the plan, and assess progress in order to be evaluated on performance (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) suggested these goals should pertain to professional roles, skills of teaching, subject specific skills, and goals based on mixed sources.

Administrative monitoring requires the supervisor to establish certain criteria for performance and growth of teachers in the classroom. Evaluation systems of the past have become ineffective for growth of the educator (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) suggested professional evaluation systems that emphasize growth instead of accountability. Differentiated supervision models emphasized two types of evaluation: intensive evaluation, making personnel decisions such as tenure, and standard evaluation, which would comply with state or district mandates on procedures for education (Glatthorn, 1997).

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine the status of student teacher supervision in agriculture, science, math and English. Five objectives and two hypotheses were identified in order to guide the study.

- 1 Describe and compare characteristics of teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education who supervised student teachers from September 1, 2005 – May 31, 2006;
- 2 Determine and compare the extent to which teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education used select models of instructional supervision;

- 3 Describe and compare the percentage of teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education who use the structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured models of instructional supervision;
- 4 Describe and compare associations between selected agriculture, science, math, and English teacher educator characteristics, and the extent to which levels of the SOIL Framework were used.
- 5 Compare supervisory styles of teacher educators in agriculture from the 2001 to 2006 study.

Hypothesis 1. There will be a higher percentage of supervisors who most frequently use the structured levels of supervision in the field of Science and Agricultural education, moderately structured level in Math education, and a relatively unstructured level in English education.

Hypothesis 2. There will be differences in preferred supervisory models due to variations in respondent's supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience, and academic rank.

Methods

This sample study was descriptive in nature. The population consisted of 123 Land Grant and 1890 Institutions, Tribal Colleges and Liberal Art Colleges in the United States. Agricultural educator's names, and institutions, were acquired through a search from the American Association for Agricultural Education Directory (Cartmell, 2005). English, math, and science land grant institutions were chosen from professional organizations respective of their content area. Department heads (Agriculture, English, math, and science) from each institution were either contacted by phone or email to evaluate interest in the study and willingness to participate. Department heads also provided a list of teacher educators responsible for supervising student teachers or

interns. As a result, 275 surveys were sent and 196 teacher educators chose to respond. The reader is cautioned not to generalize beyond the sample size in the study.

A questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on a review of literature about supervision and from the proposed Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) Framework developed by Fritz and Miller (2004). Portions of the questionnaire that were relevant to this report included behavioral questions that were related to a particular supervisory model and demographic questions.

Respondents were instructed to indicate to what extent they engaged in a specific behavior related to student teacher supervision. One behavior appeared in each statement and the behavior was related to a specific type of supervisory model. Types included were clinical supervision, contextual supervision, and differentiated supervision. The total number of questions representing each type of supervisory model was: five for clinical supervision, five for contextual supervision, and one for differentiated supervision. This section was quantified using a Likert-type scale consisting of the following choices: Never=1, Sometimes=2, Often=3, and Always=4. One model was selected to represent each level of the SOIL Framework. Clinical supervision represented the structured level, contextual supervision represented the moderately structured level, and differentiated supervision represented the relatively unstructured level.

A panel of experts on instructional supervision determined the content and face validity of the questionnaire. This panel consisted of Dr. Edwin Ralph, founder of contextual supervision, from the University of Saskatchewan; Dr. Allan Glatthorn, founder of differentiated supervision, from East Carolina University; and Dr. Robert Martin, a teacher educator in agricultural education who has published research on

instructional supervision, from Iowa State University. In order to establish a test-retest reliability coefficient, the questionnaire was initially pilot-tested with a group of nine secondary education supervisors from the College of Education at Iowa State University. The test-retest interval was two weeks. Questions with reliability coefficients of less than .70 were revised. A participant from the pilot study group was consulted about how best to revise these questions. A second pilot-test group, consisting of five teacher educators in agricultural education from Iowa State University, participated in a test-retest of the revised questionnaire. The test-retest interval for the second pilot study was two weeks. Reliability coefficients, based on data from the second pilot study, were .86 for clinical supervision, .71 for contextual supervision, and .80 for differentiated supervision.

Data was collected by a mailed questionnaire sent out to teacher educators and/or Department Heads in April 2006. The questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter and a stamped return envelope, was sent to teacher educators or the Department Head in each content area. The Department Head then distributed the surveys to individuals willing to participate in the study. There were 275 surveys sent out in the initial mailing. In May 2006, a second questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter and a stamped return envelope, was sent to non-respondents urging for their participation in the study. In total, 196 of 275 questionnaires were completed and returned, for a response rate of 71%. Nonresponse error was handled by comparing early to late respondents (Miller & Smith, 1983). Early respondents were classified as the first half of respondents to return the survey, and late respondents were the second half of respondents to return the survey. No statistically significant differences were found on the supervisory behavior questions or the demographic variables between the early and late respondents.

All data were analyzed using SPSS. The statistics deemed appropriate for the study included frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations and correlations. An alpha level of .05 was set *a priori* and Davis' (1971) descriptors were used to interpret the magnitude of all associations.

Findings

Objective 1. Describe and compare characteristics of teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education who supervised student teachers from September 1, 2005 – May 31, 2006.

Table 9 displays characteristics of teacher educators who supervised student teachers or interns during the 2005-2006 academic school year. Professors, Associate Professors, and Assistant Professors comprised 77% of the respondents, with Visiting Professors, Instructors, Graduate Assistants, and Other Professionals being the other 23% of respondents. A little over three-fourths of the teacher educators were males (76.5%), over half of the respondents (52.6%) were tenured, and over three-fourths (78.1%) were formally trained in supervision. The teacher educators averaged about eight student teachers or interns under their supervision during this studied school year, and teacher educators reported that over half of their time (54.29%) was devoted to supervision of student teachers and interns. Respondents visited student teachers or interns an average of 3.77 times during the documented school year, with an average of nearly four and one-half hours spent during each visit. The average respondent had supervised student teachers and interns 13.21 years, which represented a moderate degree of supervisory experience.

Table 9. Characteristics of Teacher Educators who Supervised Student Teachers and Interns during the 2005-2006 School Year

Item	<i>N</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Years of experience in supervising student teachers or interns	195	1-41	13.21	9.59
Number of student teachers or interns supervised from September 1, 2004- May 31, 2005 by each supervisor	191	0-40	8.33	7.28
Years of experience teaching in secondary education	193	0-37	8.45	8.10
Percentage of time devoted to supervising student teachers by each supervisor	183	0-100	54.29	31.27
On site visits to each student teacher or interns during his/her teaching experience	190	0-15	3.77	2.09
Hours spent with student teacher or intern during each visit	193	1-44	4.26	3.65
Number of student teachers or interns supervised from August, 2005-December, 2005	178	0-20	3.50	4.25
Number of student teachers or interns supervised from January, 2006-May, 2006	189	0-20	4.75	4.23

Objective 2. Determine and compare the extent to which teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education used select models of instructional supervision.

Table 10 displays the level of the SOIL Framework that teacher educators tended to use most often when supervising student teachers and interns. Other professionals who were supervising interns preferred the clinical supervision model over the contextual and differentiated models. Supervisors of student teachers who taught English (M=3.7200), science (M=3.5200), and agricultural education (M=3.5100) were most likely to *always* use contextual supervision. Supervisors of math instruction differed slightly from supervisors of other subject areas in that they reported using contextual *often* as opposed to *always*. In addition, the majority of teacher educators either sometimes or never used the differentiated supervisory model.

Table 11 shows the significance of supervision models among different academic disciplines. There appears to be statistical significance (.050) between the contextual supervision (moderately structured) level of the SOIL Framework and the type of teacher educator who utilized the model. To break down the data further, Table 12 describes the significant difference in the type of teacher educator who utilized the contextual supervisory model. Supervisors of student teachers who taught English (M=3.7200); science (M=3.5200), and agricultural education supervisors (M= 3.5100) were most likely to *always* use contextual supervision. However, supervisors of math instruction reported utilizing contextual supervision *often* as opposed to *always* (M=3.1667).

Table 10. The Extent That Teacher Educators in Math, Science, English, Agricultural Education and Other Professionals Used Components of Different Supervisory Models.

Supervisory Model	<i>N</i>	<i>M^a</i>
<i>Clinical</i>		
Math	12	3.40
Science	15	3.25
English	15	3.35
AgEd	133	3.43
Other	19	3.63
<i>Contextual</i>		
Math	12	3.17
Science	15	3.52
English	15	3.72
AgEd	132	3.51
Other	19	3.50
<i>Differentiated</i>		
Math	12	1.42
Science	14	1.64
English	15	1.60
AgEd	134	1.51
Other	19	1.68

^aNote. Likert Scale: 1-1.5=Never, 1.51-2.5=Sometimes, 2.51-3.5=Often, 3.51-4=Always

Table 11. Significance of the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Supervision Utilized by Math, Science, Agricultural Education, English and Other Teacher Educators

Supervisory Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Structured (Clinical)					
Between Groups	1.355	4	.339	2.042	.090
Within Groups	31.636	189	.166		
Total	32.718	193			
Moderately Structured (Contextual)					
Between Groups	2.075	4	.519	2.370	.050*
Within Groups	41.165	188	.219		
Total	43.240	192			
Relatively Unstructured (Differentiated)					
Between Groups	.864	4	.216	.302	.877
Within Groups	135.306	189	.716		
Total	136.170	193			

*Note. * Significant at the .05 alpha level

Table 12. Mean Scores of University Supervisors in Math, Science, English and Agricultural Education who Utilized Moderately Structured and Relatively Unstructured Models of Supervision

Supervisory Model/Type of Supervisor	N	M^a
Contextual		
Math	12	3.1667 A*
AgEd	132	3.5100 B
Science	15	3.5200 B
English	15	3.7200 B

^aNote. Likert Scale: 1-1.5=Never, 1.51-2.5=Sometimes, 2.51-3.5=Often, 3.51-4=Always

Note. Mean Scores with different letters beside them indicate different mean scores by using the Duncan's Post-hoc test.

Objective 3. Describe and compare the percentage of teacher educators in agriculture, science, math, and English education who use the structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured models of instructional supervision.

Hypothesis One: There will be a higher percentage of supervisors who most frequently use the structured levels of supervision in the field of science and agricultural education, moderately structured level in math education, and a relatively unstructured level in English education.

Based on the percentage data showed in Table 13, the moderately structured approach of instructional supervision was most often used by teacher educators (52%), followed by the clinical supervision (43.4%) and then the relatively unstructured level (4.6%).

Hypothesis one was not supported by the data.

Objective 4. Describe and compare associations between selected agriculture, science, math, and English teacher educator characteristics, and to the extent to which levels of the SOIL Framework were used.

Hypothesis Two: There will be differences in preferred supervisory models due to variations in respondent's supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience, and academic rank.

Table 14 illustrates the relationships between the level of SOIL Framework and supervisor maturity indicators: supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience, and rank in all academic areas. Davis' convention for interpreting correlation coefficients was used to describe the magnitude of the relationships of teacher educator maturity characteristics to the extent to which levels of the SOIL Framework were used. When analyzing the data, negligible relationships exist among supervisory maturity and the teacher educator's supervisory selection. Therefore, this cannot explain why supervisors use different levels of the SOIL Framework in supervision. Hypothesis two was not supported by the data.

Table 13. Percentages of Teacher Educators who used the Structured, Moderately Structured, and Relatively Unstructured Models of Instructional Supervision.

Level of Supervision	f	%
Structured		
Math	9	75.0
Science	6	40.0
English	4	26.7
AgEd	56	41.5
Other	10	52.6
Total:	85	43.4%
Moderately Structured		
Math	3	25.0
Science	9	60.0
English	10	66.7
AgEd	72	53.3
Other	8	42.1
Total:	102	52.0%
Relatively Unstructured		
Math	0	0
Science	0	0
English	1	6.7
AgEd	7	5.2
Other	1	5.3
Total:	9	4.6%

Table 14. Relationships Between Level of the SOIL Framework and Supervisory Experience, Formal Training, Cooperating Teacher Experience, and Academic Rank in Agricultural, Science, Math, and English Education

	Association	Magnitude
Supervisory Experience	-.034 ^a	Negligible
Formal Training	.002 ^a	Negligible
Cooperating Teacher Experience	-.027 ^a	Negligible
Rank	.080 ^a	Negligible

^ar

Objective 5. Compare supervisory styles of teacher educators in agriculture education from the 2001 to the 2006 study.

This same supervision study was conducted in 2001 with teacher educators in agricultural education. In 2006, the study included teacher educators in agricultural education along with other academic disciplines such as math, science and English. Table 15 shows the comparison of supervisory models utilized by teacher educators in agricultural education between the 2001 to 2006 study. Comparison of mean scores indicates a slight difference from the study conducted in 2001 to the 2006 study of supervisory models utilized. The clinical model of supervision was *always* used in the 2001 study and now is *often* being used. The conceptual supervisory model is still used only *often*, and the differentiated supervisory model still is never *used*.

Table 15. Comparison of Supervisory Styles of Teacher Educators in Agricultural Education from 2001 to 2006.

Supervision Style	2001 Study	2006 Study
Clinical	3.56	3.43
Contextual	3.45	3.47
Differentiated	1.70	1.51

**Note.* Likert Scale: 1-1.5=Never, 1.51-2.5=Sometimes, 2.51-3.5=Often, 3.51-4=Always

Conclusions

Professors, Associate Professors, and Assistant Professors comprised 77% of the respondents, with Visiting Professors, Instructors, Graduate Assistants, and Other Professionals being the other 23% of respondents. A little over three-fourths of the teacher educators were males (76.5%), over half of the respondents (52.6%) were tenured, over three-fourths (78.1%) were formally trained in supervision, and on average, teacher educators had 13.21 years of supervisory experience. The teacher educators averaged about eight student teachers or interns under their supervision the 2005-2006 school year, and teacher educators reported that over half of their time (54.29%) was devoted to supervision of student teachers and interns. Respondents visited each student teacher or intern an average of 3.77 times during the documented school year, and four and one-half hours were spent during each visit.

Supervisors of student teachers and interns who taught English, science, and agricultural education were most likely to *always* use the moderately structured level of supervision. Supervisors of math instruction reported using moderately structured levels of supervision *often* as opposed to *always*. Data generated in this study indicated that supervisors of student teachers and interns rarely, if ever, use relatively unstructured models of instructional supervision.

It can be concluded that most teacher educators would prefer a moderately structured approach of supervision. Moderately structured supervision provides opportunities for the student teacher or intern to be involved and most teacher educators in this study prefer that type of supervision. This level of the SOIL Framework shows

that teacher educators do realize the importance of situational leadership and that different forms of supervision can be applied to individuals with varying levels of competence, commitment and motivation. This allows the teacher educator with the ability be progressive with all student teachers in finding their personal style of teaching.

One may conclude that people who are in supervisory positions feel that they are expected to guide, direct, mentor, and take charge of those individuals who fall under their care. Relatively unstructured supervision effectively negates the supervisor's duties and encourages self-supervision on the part of the student teacher or intern. It is apparent from this study that virtually all supervisors of student teachers and interns are reluctant to abrogate their professional responsibilities of traditional supervision that would include structured and moderately structured levels in favor of relatively unstructured models.

The math educators and other supervisors utilized the structured supervision model over the moderately or relatively unstructured levels. However, the agricultural education, English and science teacher educators preferred the moderately and relatively unstructured levels of supervision. The significant difference between teacher educators and their choice of supervision was in the moderately structured level (contextual supervision). Math educators only *often* used contextual supervision and the agricultural education, science, English and other supervisors *always* used contextual supervision.

Supervisory experience, formal training, cooperating teacher experience and academic rank were teacher educator's characteristics which were used to represent supervisory maturity. Supervisory maturity did not influence which type of supervisory model a teacher educator selected when working with student teachers or interns. **It is concluded, therefore, that these**

factors are not related to the SOIL Framework, and cannot explain why instructors use the preferred level of the SOIL Framework in their supervisory duties.

One may conclude that more training on different models of supervision is being done and more teacher educators are being exposed to different styles of supervision and how these approaches can be effectively implemented with student teachers or interns. Supervisory styles of teacher educators in agriculture were surveyed in 2001 (Fritz & Miller, 2003). The results of that study were compared to the 2006 study that is the subject of this thesis. A mean score comparison of supervisory styles showed teacher educators still do not favor the relatively unstructured level of supervision. However, in the 2006 study, teacher educators now only *often* use clinical supervision instead of *always*, as found in the 2001 study. Now, teacher educators in agricultural education tend to *always* use the moderately structured level of supervision instead of *often*, as found in the 2001 study.

Implications and Discussion

One has to wonder if the amount of hours spent with a student teacher impacts a teacher educator's supervisory approach. Extended hours spent with the student teacher or intern could result in closer attention to: guidance, consultation with cooperating teacher, review of lesson plans, observations in the classroom, feedback with the student teacher on quality of classroom presentation and activities, suggestions for improvement on instructional delivery and classroom management practices. The expanded number of hours might also foster the bonding between the student teacher and supervisor resulting in a relationship of mutual trust.

One also must consider that extended time spent with the student teacher or intern could possibly make that individual feel controlled and over manipulated in the classroom. It might also implicate that the student teacher or intern has low competence and is unable to perform properly in front of a class. In this situation, the student teacher or intern might become frustrated with not being able to find their individual style of teaching in the classroom.

When considering the amount of time spent with the student teacher or intern, risk and reward certainly apply to all stakeholders in the supervision process. The question of risk applies to the teacher educator in regards to how much freedom they are willing to let student teachers and interns experience in the supervision process. Reward applies to how well the student teacher or intern performs when compared to the risk being applied during their experience.

Both risk and reward are components of supervision and are applied to the student teaching dyad. Teacher educators must make progressive decisions in regard to how teachers will be supervised, thus maximizing professional growth. The ultimate goal of supervision is to guide and facilitate an experience for teachers in order to make them most effective, and comfortable, during their first year in the classroom. If this is accomplished, then it may be assumed that reward is high for the student teaching dyad. If the teacher enters their first year of teaching with limited skills and classroom management, then risk is shown to the student teaching dyad.

Recommendations

Further study is warranted to determine if the patterns endure over an extended period of time.

Questions that might relate to future research in this area are:

1. How does rank of supervisor of student teachers and interns relate to supervisory style?
2. To what extent is length of time visiting student teachers and interns related to the supervisor's preferred supervision style?
3. Do supervisors of math student teachers and interns differ from other teacher educators in preferred supervisory style due to the nature of the teaching of that particular subject area?
4. What are the actual risks of student teachers, interns, and supervisors when using the SOIL Framework?
5. What are the actual rewards experienced by student teachers, interns, and supervisors when using the SOIL Framework?

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH APPROVAL FORM




THE UNIVERSITY of TENNESSEE

Department of Agricultural Economics

2621 Morgan Circle
302 Morgan Hall
Knoxville, TN 37996-4518
(865) 974-7231
(865) 974-7484
<http://economics.ag.utk.edu/>

To: Dr. Dan McLemore, Head, Department of Agricultural Economics

From: Dr. David Eastwood, Chair, Departmental Human Subjects Committee 

Date: July 11, 2005

Subject: Human Subjects Certification for "Supervision Survey".

The Departmental Human Subjects Committee has reviewed a Form A submission prepared by Dr. Fritz to conduct a survey of math, science, and English teacher educators from 1862 Land Grant Institutions. Form A and supporting materials are attached.

We approve this certification request and are submitting it to you for approval. I have signed the form, and there is a place for your signature, as well. If you concur with the committee's decision, the form needs to be sent to Brenda Lawson, Office of Research, 404 Andy Holt Tower.

cc: Dr. de la Torre Ugarte
Dr. Waters
Dr. Fritz

Land-Grant Education, Research and Extension Programs through the UT Institute of Agriculture

J. CERTIFICATION: The research described herein is in compliance with 45 CFR 46.101(b) and presents subjects with no more than minimal risk as defined by applicable regulations.

Principal
Investigator :

Carrie Ann Fritz Carrie Ann Fritz 6/25/05
Name Signature Date

Student
Advisor:

Name Signature Date

Department
Review
Committee
Chair:

DB Eastwood DB Eastwood 7/11/05
Name Signature Date

APPROVED
BY

Department
Head:

Dan L. McEmore Dan L. McEmore 7/11/05
Name Signature Date

COPY OF THIS COMPLETED FORM MUST BE SENT TO COMPLIANCE
OFFICE IMMEDIATELY UPON COMPLETION.

CONSENT FORM

Introduction

You are invited to participate in a research study. The research study will focus on the process of supervision conducted by math, science, and English university teacher educators.

Information about Participants Involvement in the Study

As a participant in this study, you will be asked to fill out a survey. The information gained from surveys will be used in written research publications to describe the supervision process undertaken by university teacher educators in math, science, and English. Previously, the same survey was given to university teacher educators in agricultural education and the researcher will then compare each group's supervision process. The following are terms of participating in the study:

- a. The information obtained during this project will be used to write research publications that will be read by other individuals.
- b. You will be asked to fill out a survey that will take approximately 20 minutes. Each survey will be assigned a code number in order to protect each participant's confidentiality.

Risks

There are no risks for participating in this study.

Benefits

The benefits of the study are to 1) add to the body of knowledge related to supervision, 2) provide an understanding of supervisory practices used by agricultural education, math, science, and English university teacher educators, and 3) understand the supervisory differences between disciplines.

Confidentiality

The information obtained from participants will be kept confidential. Questionnaires will be stored securely in Dr. Carrie Fritz's office (325 Morgan Hall) and will be made available only to persons conducting the study. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link participants to the study.

Contact Information

If you have any questions at any time about the study or procedures, you may contact the researcher, Dr. Carrie Fritz at (865) 974-4830 or cfritz@utk.edu. If you have any questions about the rights as a participant, contact Research Compliance Services of the Office of Research at (865) 974-3466.

Participation

Participation is entirely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or discontinue participation in this research project at any time. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE STUDY COVER LETTER



Agricultural and Extension Education

2621 Morgan Circle
325 Morgan Hall
Knoxville, TN 37996-4511
Phone: (865) 974-7371
Fax: (865) 974-7383
E-mail: <http://aee.tennessee.edu>

April 21, 2006

Dear :

The Agricultural and Extension Education Program at the University of Tennessee is conducting a study of math, science, English, and agricultural education student teacher or intern supervisors. The data gathered will provide an insight into preferred supervisory practices used by individuals who supervise student teachers or interns in these areas.

You were selected because you are or have been involved with the supervision of student teachers or interns. In order for the results to accurately represent math, science, English, and agricultural education supervisors of student teachers or interns, it is very important that each questionnaire be completed and returned. Responding to the questions should take approximately 20 minutes of your time, but it will be critical to the success of the study. I would urge you to complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed envelope by May 19, 2006.

You may be assured that your responses will remain completely confidential. The questionnaire has an identification number that will enable us to check your name off the mailing list when the questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the answer sheet or the questionnaire.

If you have questions about the study, please feel free to email or call. The email address is cfritz@utk.edu and the telephone number is 865-974-4830.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Carrie Fritz, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Agricultural Education

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE STUDY NONRESPONSE COVER LETTER



May 26, 2006

Dear :

Approximately one month ago we wrote you seeking input related to your supervisory practices. Your input was solicited as part of a research project of the Agricultural and Extension Education Program at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. As of today I have not received your questionnaire. If you have already returned the questionnaire and we simply have not received it yet, thank you for your response and you may disregard this second notice.

If, however, you have not returned the previous questionnaire, I have enclosed a second copy for your review. I would greatly appreciate you taking 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire and return it in the self-addressed stamped envelope.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you may be assured that your responses will remain completely confidential. The questionnaire has an identification number that will enable us to check your name off the mailing list when the questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the answer sheet or the questionnaire.

If you have questions about the study, please feel free to email or call. The email address is cfritz@utk.edu and the telephone number is 865-974-4830.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Carrie Fritz, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Agricultural and Extension Education

APPENDIX D
SUPERVISION SURVEY

SUPERVISION SURVEY



**Agricultural and Extension Education
University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

Code: _____

Part I. Please indicate the extent to which you do the following things when supervising student teachers or interns.

KEY

N = NEVER
S = SOMETIMES
O = OFTEN
A = ALWAYS

	Statements	(Circle One)
1.	Conduct a meeting (either in person, by telephone, or email) with the student teacher or intern to discuss the lesson that you <u>will</u> observe.	N S O A
2.	Have other teachers in the school supervise the student teacher or intern at least twice during the teaching experience.	N S O A
3.	Ask the student teacher or intern about his/her relationship with other teachers in the school.	N S O A

Key: N=Never S=Sometimes O=Often A=Always

4.	Meet with the student teacher or intern (either in person, by telephone, or email) to discuss the lesson that you observed.	N	S	O	A
5.	Establish benchmarks with the student teacher or intern to be achieved at each supervisory visit based on his/her personal or workload problems.	N	S	O	A
6.	Adjust your leadership style to accommodate the student teacher or intern you are working with.	N	S	O	A
7.	Ask the student teacher or intern to <u>choose</u> the type of supervision he/she will receive.	N	S	O	A
8.	Hold conferences with the student teacher or intern to monitor his/her progress toward achieving his/her goals.	N	S	O	A

Please Continue

Key: **N=Never** **S=Sometimes** **O=Often** **A=Always**

9.	Display the data from your observation in readable form and give to the student teacher or intern to analyze.	N	S	O	A
10.	Ask the student teacher or intern how he/she feels about the classroom environment.	N	S	O	A
11.	Ask the student teacher or intern to give you an overview of his/her teaching workload.	N	S	O	A
12.	Have the student teacher or intern visit other classrooms in the school at least twice.	N	S	O	A
13.	Have the student teacher or intern provide feedback to other teachers about their teaching.	N	S	O	A

Key: **N=Never** **S=Sometimes** **O=Often** **A=Always**

14.	Ask the student teacher or intern about the level of support you provide.	N	S	O	A
15.	Adjust your supervision approach as the student teacher or intern progresses in his/her teaching experience.	N	S	O	A
16.	Ask the student teacher or intern about his/her prior teaching experience.	N	S	O	A
17.	Have the student teacher or intern <u>evaluate</u> his/her teaching either by videotape, journaling, inventories, or portfolio.	N	S	O	A
18.	Ask the student teacher or intern to provide <u>feedback</u> about <u>your critique</u> of his/her lesson.	N	S	O	A

Please Continue

Key: **N=Never** **S=Sometimes** **O=Often** **A=Always**

19.	Observe the student teacher's or intern's decision-making process.	N	S	O	A
20.	Serve as a resource to the student teacher or intern.	N	S	O	A
21.	Assess the student teacher's or intern's confidence level.	N	S	O	A
22.	<u>Eliminate</u> your personal teaching preference while supervising the student teacher or intern.	N	S	O	A
23.	Have the student teacher or intern be <u>supervised</u> by <u>other teachers</u> in the school.	N	S	O	A
24.	Have the student teacher or intern develop a list of teaching goals.	N	S	O	A

Key: **N=Never** **S=Sometimes** **O=Often** **A=Always**

25.	Have the student teacher or intern commit to a set of dates for teaching goals to be achieved.	N	S	O	A
26.	Adjust the type of encouragement that you give each student teacher or intern.	N	S	O	A
27.	Arrange for the student teacher or intern to be part of a two or three teacher team that observes each other's classroom.	N	S	O	A
28.	Adjust the amount of structure you give to the student teacher or intern.	N	S	O	A
29.	Dialogue with the student teacher or intern about his/her knowledge of the subject matter he/she will be teaching.	N	S	O	A
30.	Document observation of the student teacher or intern teaching a lesson.	N	S	O	A

Please Continue

Part II. Please **circle** the letter that represents what you would do in each scenario.

1. You go to supervise the student teacher or intern (Mark) and he is not satisfied with the quality of discussions in one of his classes. You ask Mark to describe the type of class discussions he wants to take place. Mark replied that he wants to foster students' "higher level" thinking and have open dialogue concerning some important issues related to the class. You ask Mark what is preventing such discussion. He replies that he probably hindered class discussions himself by asking too many simple recall questions rather than questions that would spark student interest and discussion. Mark explains that typically only a few students participate in class discussions, and he did little to encourage those who did not participate to join in. How would you help the teacher?
 - a. **You should present your solutions to Mark and direct him to carry out the solutions that you present.**
 - b. **You should collaborate with Mark to develop a plan to solve the problem, and mutually agree on a plan of action that will be taken.**
 - c. **You should allow Mark to develop his own solutions to the problem and then have him submit a formal commitment (in writing) of a plan of action to solve the problem.**

2. There have been several complaints made by teachers, students, and parents about the student teacher or intern (Missy) using inappropriate teaching methods, so you visit her to discuss the complaints on three occasions. During each visit, you try and find out more about Missy's attitude toward teaching. Also, you have provided several suggestions and alternatives to help Missy improve her teaching. Regardless of your input, lesson content or student population, all of the observed lessons still follow the same pattern. First, seat-by-seat and row-by-row, students would take turns reading paragraphs from the textbook. Next, Missy passes out a worksheet for students before the end of class, they are told to begin their homework assignment, which always consisted of written exercises from the textbook. During independent seatwork, Missy sits at her desk reading Glamour magazine, looking up only to give an "evil-eye" to students who are talking to each other or out of their seats. After three conferences with the teacher, how would you help the teacher?
- a. You should identify the problem for Missy, present the solutions to her, and direct Missy to carry out the solutions.**
 - b. You should allow Missy the opportunity to identify her own problems, develop her own solutions to the problems, and have her submit a formal commitment (in writing) of a plan of action to solve the problem.**
 - c. You should allow Missy to identify the problem she is having, and then collaborate with her to develop a plan to solve the problem, and mutually agree on a plan of action.**

Please Continue

3. A student teacher or intern (Camie) approaches you about a staff development option for teachers wishing to participate in an individualized professional development program. She has some tentative ideas for a program that would provide development opportunities for her and others. A number of teachers have decided that they want to try cooperative learning strategies in their classroom but few have received in-depth training. Since Camie has received several hours of training in cooperative learning at college, she thought that she could provide some training to other teachers. She has requested a meeting with you and the other teachers to discuss the plan. You attend the meeting with Camie and other teachers in the school district. There are some concerns about the program and how it will work. As a supervisor, what do you do?

- a. **You should identify the problems that the professional development program could have, present solutions to those problems, and direct Camie to carry out the solutions that could improve the professional development program.**
- b. **You and Camie should identify the problems that the professional development program could have, develop solutions to those problems, and mutually agree on a plan of action to solve the problems.**
- c. **You should allow Camie to identify the problems that the professional development program will have, allow her to develop solutions to those problems, and then have her submit a formal commitment (in writing) of the plan of action that she wishes to follow to reach her solutions.**

Part III. Information About You

1. How many years have you supervised student teachers or interns?

_____ **YEARS**

2. Have you received formal training in instructional supervision?
(Please place a **check** next to your response)

_____ **YES (PLEASE SPECIFY)**

_____ **NO**

3. What type of teachers do you supervise?
(Please place a **check** next to your response)

_____ **STUDENT TEACHERS**
(TEACH ONE SEMESTER OR LESS)

_____ **INTERNS**
(TEACH FOR A COMPLETE SCHOOL YEAR)

4. What academic discipline are you a supervisor for?
(Please **check** all that apply)

_____ **MATH**

_____ **SCIENCE**

_____ **ENGLISH**

_____ **AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION**

Please Continue

5. How many student teachers or interns will you supervise?

_____ **FALL 2005**

_____ **SPRING 2006**

6. How many student teachers or interns did you supervise in the period beginning September 1, 2004 and May 31, 2005?

_____ **STUDENT TEACHERS OR INTERNS**

7. On average, how many on-site visits did you make to each student teacher or intern during his/her teaching experience?

_____ **ON-SITE VISITS**

8. On average, how many hours do you spend with the student teacher or intern during each visit?

_____ **HOURS**

9. How many years did you teach at the high school level?

_____ **YEARS**

10. How many student teachers or interns did you serve as a cooperating teacher for while you were teaching high school?

_____ **STUDENT TEACHERS OR INTERNS**

11. What is your gender? (Please place a **check** next to your response)

_____ **FEMALE**

_____ **MALE**

12. What is your age?

_____ **YEARS**

13. What is your academic position?

(Please place a **check** next to your response)

_____ **PROFESSOR**

_____ **ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR**

_____ **ASSISTANT PROFESSOR**

_____ **VISITING PROFESSOR**

_____ **INSTRUCTOR**

_____ **GRADUATE ASSISTANT**

_____ **OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY)**

14. Do you have tenure? (Please place a **check** next to your response)

_____ **YES**

_____ **NO**

15. What portion of your time is devoted to teacher preparation?

_____ **PERCENT**

Please Continue

16. Please describe how you conduct a supervisory visit with a student teacher or intern.

17. Please **return with your survey**, documentation instruments you utilize to supervise student teachers or interns.

VITA

David Alan Little was born November 8, 1982, to Dr. Thomas and Lynn Little of Carter County, Elizabethton, Tennessee. He graduated from Elizabethton High School, Elizabethton, Tennessee, in May of 2001. He graduated from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville with a Bachelor of Science degree in agriculture in May of 2006. While attending UT, he became a member of Collegiate FFA, student council and the Alpha Zeta honors agricultural fraternity.

In the summer of 2006, he accepted a position with the University of Tennessee College of Agricultural Sciences and Natural Resources, Agricultural and Extension Education Program, as a Graduate Teaching Assistant. While employed in this role, he entered into a Master of Science program in the Agricultural and Extension Education Program to begin his graduate study.

Presently, he lives in Knox County, Knoxville, Tennessee. He is currently employed with Lenoir City Schools as a teacher.